

NOVEMBER 1962

INTERNATIONAL REVIEW
OF THE
RED CROSS

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INTERNATIONAL REVIEW OF THE RED CROSS

SECOND YEAR — No. 20

NOVEMBER 1962

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BOOKS

A GLANCE THROUGH THE REVIEWS

FRENCH EDITION OF THE REVIEW

The French edition of this Review is issued every month under the title of *Revue internationale de la Croix-Rouge*. It is, in principle, identical with the English edition and may be obtained under the same conditions.

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SUPPLEMENTS TO THE REVIEW

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SPANISH

A.-M. Pfister : Hace cien años fué publicado «Un Recuerdo de Solferino». — Informe de actividad del Comité Internacional.

GERMAN

A.-M. Pfister : Vor hundert Jahren erschien «Eine Erinnerung an Solferino». — R. von Neumann : In der Bundesrepublik Deutschland : Kriegsgräberfürsorge im Sinne der Genfer Abkommen.

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A HUNDRED YEARS SINCE THE PUBLICATION OF

A Memory of Solferino

What do we find at the origin of the work which does most honour to mankind, at the roots of a movement which has been spread across the world for the past hundred years? There is of course one man, Henry Dunant, but there is also a book. A slight volume which was soon to stir the hearts and consciences of Europe from end to end, by its fluent style, its stark reality and its warm-hearted appeal. This was *A Memory of Solferino*.

The promoter of the Red Cross shook his contemporaries by the way in which he described with such force and simplicity the deep distress of the wounded at Castiglione, their great sufferings, which contrasted so vividly with the inadequate measures taken for their relief. But this picture of the horrors of war was not intended to be an end in itself; it opened up the perspective of being able to mitigate the tragic lot of victims of a scourge as old as the world itself. Mere emotion, however, is not enough. It is only by continuous effective action that this objective can show its true quality. It is to Henry Dunant's undying fame that he drew upon his own personal experience to produce consequences of universal importance, to have conceived the bold idea of a relief organization which was to be both international and permanent, and to have had sufficient faith in the possibilities of its realization to have inspired men of goodwill with such a faith and to triumph over all obstacles.

Anyone other than Dunant would perhaps have thought that, after having cared for the wounded of that terrible battle in June 1859 with such energy and devotion, he had done all that was possible, that he had amply fulfilled his duty, and that he could return

to his own affairs. After all, he was not responsible for the war, and how could an obscure individual alter the existing state of things, transform a complex organization and have any influence on the decisions of governments? Dunant, however, had never forgotten the heart-breaking scenes which continued to haunt him ; he did not remain silent in the face of his fellow-men's sufferings, instead, he wrote " A Memory of Solferino ". He took a long time reflecting on his idea in order to give it more weight ; it was in fact not until three and a half years later that the book saw the light of day.

The exact date of its publication has been disputed and for this reason it is thought to be of interest to devote a short article to the subject in this year of commemoration. Documents in the Henry Dunant Archives, in the Manuscript Department of the *Bibliothèque publique et universitaire de Genève*, make it possible, however, to determine the date fairly accurately.

It is known that the first important account of the origins of the Red Cross, based on Henry Dunant's memories, appeared in German in Stuttgart in 1897 under the well known title, *Entstehungsgeschichte des Roten Kreuzes und der Genfer Konvention*.¹ Its author, Rudolf Müller, had worked closely with Dunant, who was writing his memoirs at Heiden, which were then translated and freely used by Müller.

Dunant was writing more than twenty years after the events he was describing and one can readily imagine, however good his memory may have been, that he made some slight errors in dates. One of these precisely concerns the date of his book's publication. In one passage of his memoirs, Dunant complains that the committee formed under the auspices of Madame de Gasparin and Mr. Naville, after the war in Italy, did not wish to remain on a permanent basis.² He continues : " It was therefore extremely important to strike a great blow in order to produce a work such as that envisaged by Dunant. This was *A Memory of Solferino* which achieved this object which was so greatly desired by its author. He never ceased for a moment from quietly allowing his idea to ripen without being cast down by general indifference or scepticism. He took about a year to

¹ Translation : *History of the origins of the Red Cross and the Geneva Convention*.

² Bibliothèque de Genève, Ms.2078, ff.6-7.

Paris le 27 8^e 1862

Monsieur

En vous remerciant du plaisir que m'a prouvé votre aimable visite, et en réponse à votre honoree lettre d'avant-hier je vous en prie :

- 1°) vous pourriez porter l'effort antichien hardiment à 170,000
- 2°) mettre environ 500 livres d'antichien
- 3°) et sur le drapeau noir qui indiquait les blaps.
- 4°) Vous êtes dans le vrai en

plusieurs ne se permirent, pendant plus de vingt-quatre heures, aucun instant de repos ; deux d'entre eux qui étaient à l'ambulance placée sous les ordres du docteur Méry, médecin en chef de la garde, eurent tant de membres à couper et de pansements à faire qu'ils s'évanouirent ; et dans une autre ambulance, un de leurs collègues, épuisé de fatigue, fut obligé, pour pouvoir continuer son office, de se faire soutenir les bras par deux soldats.

Lors d'une bataille un drapeau noir, fixé sur un point élevé, indique ordinairement le poste des blessés ou les ambulances des régiments engagés dans l'action, et par un accord tacite et réciproque on ne tire pas dans ces directions ; quelquefois néanmoins les bombes y arrivent, sans épargner les officiers comptables et les infirmiers, ni les fourgons chargés de pain, de vin, et de viande destinée à faire du bouillon pour les malades. Ceux des soldats blessés qui sont encore capables de marcher, se rendent d'eux-mêmes à ces ambulances volantes ; dans le cas contraire on les transporte au moyen de brancards ou de civières, affaiblis qu'ils sont souvent par des hémorragies et par la privation prolongée de tout secours.

Sur cette vaste étendue de pays si accidentée, de plus de vingt kilomètres de longueur, et après les phases de bouleversement qu'entraînait un conflit aussi gigantesque, soldats, officiers et généraux ne peuvent savoir qu'imparfaitement l'issue de tous les combats qui se sont livrés,

write his book with great diligence and to have it printed,¹ and this work appeared, as we have seen, during the summer of 1862." On the other hand in a letter of July 13, 1904, written in connection with its re-printing, the founder of the Red Cross declares to his nephew, Maurice Dunant : " The first edition appeared in October 1862."

The correspondence received by the author, together with the invoice from the Fick printing house, prove that Dunant was inexact on these two counts ; but he cannot, I maintain, be blamed for this. When did the manuscript actually reach the printers? We do not know the exact date, it must no doubt have been during the course of the summer. On the other hand we do know that Dunant was still correcting the proofs of his book in October. He then submitted them to General Dufour for his comments, who replied on October 19 : " I have read the sheets which you have sent me with great interest. I entirely approve of their contents which I consider to be a most useful addition to the military accounts of the last Italian campaign." Henry Dunant who had not been present at the Battle of Solferino thought it was necessary, however, to describe it briefly by way of an introduction to relating his own personal impressions and the painful scenes he had witnessed, and the first forty pages of his book deal with this " military account " to which General Dufour was referring.

He also sent the proofs to Colonel Ferdinand Lecomte, of the Canton de Vaud, author of a *Relation historique et critique de la campagne d'Italie en 1859*, asking for further information. A letter of October 27, 1862 from Lecomte shows us that Dunant was still then correcting his text, since he included, in the first edition, the points made by his correspondent. Based on this information he put the number of one hundred and seventy thousand men, supported by approximately five hundred pieces of artillery, as the effective strength of the Austrian force in the battle line.² Lecomte also informed him that black flags were used to mark first-aid posts. Dunant made use of this fact by observing : " During a battle a black flag from a high place is the usual means of showing the loca-

¹ " By the well known firm of Fick of Geneva, successors throughout the ages of the famous Genevese house of Tournes." (Note by Henry Dunant.)

² See *A Memory of Solferino*, p. 6, translation of the original edition.

tion of first-aid posts or field ambulances.”¹ It was therefore not before the end of October that the work was passed for the press. After that, 1600 copies were soon printed some of which were with bindings. On November 8 the firm of Fick submitted the following invoice :

Jules-Gme Fick

Geneva, November 8, 1862

Supplied to Mr. Henri Dunant

<i>1862 November</i>	<i>1600 copies, Printing and make-up</i>	
	<i>Un Souvenir de Solférino containing</i>	
	<i>8 fly-leaves including 3 insets 120 frs.</i>	<i>960.—</i>
	<i>342 hours for author's corrections 75 ct.</i>	<i>256,50</i>
	<i>400 title-pages 10 frs. per 100</i>	<i>40.—</i>
	<i>800 covers 8 frs. per 100 including paper</i>	<i>64.—</i>
	<i>24 reams 1/2 long royal semi-fine 36 frs.</i>	
	<i>per ream</i>	<i>882.—</i>
	<i>4 ditto super-royal 70 frs. per ream</i>	<i>2482,50</i>
		<hr style="width: 100%;"/>
		<i>75.—</i>
		<hr style="width: 100%;"/>
		<i>2407,50</i>

Received the sum of two thousand four hundred and eighty francs, Geneva, November 12 in payment.

(signed) Jules FICK

One can clearly see from this how many corrections were made in the proofs: alterations made by the author amounted to 342 hours' work. Until the very last moment Dunant rectified or defined points of detail in the first part of his work. He was probably in possession of a certain number of copies already on November 8, which he could have sent immediately to a few people. We are at

¹ *Plate.*

See *A Memory of Solferino*, p. 20, translation of the original edition. In another letter dated November 17, Lecomte pointed out that if hospitals flew black flags, ambulances had red banners.

least inclined to think this from a passage in one of Dunant's letters : " On October 10, 1862, I was thanked by Madame Pauline Micheli, née Revilliod, on her husband's behalf and on her own, for having sent the book *A Memory of Solferino*." Once again he seems to have been mistaken by a month and one should really read " *November 10, 1862* " instead, which would have been the earliest possible date for sending such thanks. However that may be on this particular point, one thing is certain, Dunant lost no time in sending his book to his numerous friends and acquaintances.

Wishing to spread his great idea around and thus hoping to find many adherents, Dunant arranged for the book to be widely distributed in his own circle. This is brought out on the title-page with its caption of *Not for sale*. Results were not long in following. On November 13, Captain Müller thanks him in the following terms : " I want straight away to express all the pleasure I felt on receiving your book. I propose re-reading with my wife a work (I read it straight through yesterday) which will remind us of the moving accounts of the author." On the 15th. Dunant received a whole series of letters, from Max Perrot, founder of the Christian Unions, from the philosopher Ernest Naville, from Petit-Senn, the poet, followed by many others.

Dunant began by distributing his book first of all in Geneva. A little later he sent it abroad and decided to place a second edition on sale. One will in fact have noticed that, on the invoice of November 8, out of 1600 copies only 400 title-pages were printed. In December he instructed Fick to print a thousand title-pages indicating the issue of a *Second Edition* in substitution for the caption of *Not for sale*. Furthermore, these sheets bore the names of distributing booksellers in Geneva, Paris, Turin, St. Petersburg and Leipzig.

After this new title-page, he wrote, on an unnumbered page, a foreword as follows : " Since this work was not originally intended for publicity, the first edition was not for sale. However, the author having received requests from many different quarters, has now been obliged to agree to a re-issue. By making the book available to the public, the author hopes moreover the better to achieve his object, and concerning which he now complies with the numerous requests which he has received." These two pages, which are

peculiar to the second edition bibliographically, were in fact merely stitched above the copies of the first issue which were still in the hands of the printers.

At the beginning of 1863, it was thought necessary to issue a third edition. In this, there was a new make-up with smaller characters and of a reduced size. 3000 copies of this re-issue, still at the author's expense, were printed by Fick in February. Dunant also added a few notes, in one of which can be found the famous proposal to make use of relief societies in time of peace, "during periods of epidemics or in disasters such as floods and fires . . ."

Thus by February 9, 1863, at the meeting of the Public Welfare Society of Geneva, at which the conclusions of *A Memory of Solferino* were examined, Dunant's work, with a mere three months of existence, had already had a wide circulation and had exercised a deep influence. Henry Dunant's appeal was heard and the way was now open in a few months' time for the creation of the Red Cross and, in less than two years, for the signing of the First Geneva Convention. It was well worth recalling once more, the remarkable effect this book has had, when we celebrate in this month of November 1962, the centenary of its publication.

ANNE-MARIE PFISTER

Keeper of Manuscripts at the Bibliothèque
publique et universitaire de Genève.

THE MAINTENANCE OF MILITARY GRAVES IN ACCORDANCE WITH THE GENEVA CONVENTIONS

The Central Tracing Agency in Geneva has always had, amongst many other tasks in time of war, that of tracing the graves of missing military personnel. If we are more especially considering the Second World War, we can see that this activity began for the Central Prisoners of War Agency (its official title at that time), when hundreds of thousands of regimental enquiries were opened for French prisoners of war in Germany, in order to discover the fate of French military personnel missing during the summer of 1940.

Moreover, in all theatres of war from 1940 to 1945, in Europe, Africa and Asia, the Central Agency undertook numerous individual enquiries for the purpose of determining the location where military personnel who had been reported missing were buried and concerning whom their own commanders lacked all information. The end of the Second World War did not mean that this activity ceased, and even now the various sections of the Central Agency trace missing persons, civilians as well as military, and are in many cases successful in finding out where they are buried and even, as for example in the case of the Italian section, in identifying them.

Several national sections of the Central Tracing Agency, in particular the German, Italian, French, Polish and Yugoslav sections, are continuing this activity and co-operating with various organizations in many countries engaged not only in tracing, but also in maintaining war graves. In the German Federal Republic there exists a very active commission in this field and we think it will interest our readers to learn of the task it is pursuing and which is in part in accordance with the provisions of the Geneva Conventions. We would however point out that delegates of the ICRC have sometimes also had occasion to carry out a similar activity in countries in which they have found themselves. Thus one delegate in France at the end of the Second World War visited municipal offices in order to try to

locate war graves and to discover the names of buried military personnel and civilians. (Editorial note).

* * *

Respect for the dead is one of the most ancient and human ideas. One would have thought, then, that belligerents would have concluded, very early on and under some binding form, agreements between themselves relative to the care of military graves in order to draw up conventions on a reciprocal basis, since it was obviously a question of ethics, of according respect due to the dead and to their graves. During the course of history attempts have certainly been made to "humanize" war, but it was not until the present century that conventions were signed dealing with the matter of military graves in a concrete manner and under a generally valid form.

It was only after several decades that the Red Cross, which had given itself the object of mitigating suffering in time of war, was accepted by the civilized elements of society of the period. The Geneva Convention of 1864 "for the amelioration of the condition of the wounded in armies in the field", originally due to Henry Dunant's initiative and the result of his personal experiences on the battlefield of Solferino, were only concluded after much debating. No place could yet be found for the question of the maintenance of military graves. But if this first Convention restricted itself to formulating rules relative to the wounded and military prisoners, it none the less started a series of initiatives which, after a relatively brief interval, were to lead to a humanitarian extension closely allied to it. This included, amongst others, aid to the shipwrecked and civilians, the prohibition of the use of certain projectiles in war time (St. Petersburg Conference, 1868), the Hague Conferences of 1899 and 1907, which drew up "regulations concerning the laws and customs of war". The IVth Hague Convention of October 18, 1907, is the first one which, in view of its application during the First World War, was to have general reverberations. In chapter II (Section I) of the Annex, article 14 stipulates that an enquiry office for prisoners of war be instituted on the commencement of hostilities, which should receive amongst other details,

information respecting deaths. Furthermore, article 19 lays down the rules to be observed regarding the drawing up of wills of prisoners of war and for the burial of the dead " due regard ", as it states, " being paid to their grade and rank ".

The additional Germano-Ukrainian Treaty of February 9, 1918, completing the Peace Treaty between Germany, Austro-Hungary, Bulgaria and Turkey of the one part and the People's Ukrainian Republic of the other part (art. VIII of the Peace Treaty), constitutes a new, logical and important step towards the " maintenance of war graves " on an inter-governmental basis. Article 17 in fact stipulates that each High Contracting Party undertakes to " respect and maintain the graves of the military of the armed forces of the other Party on its territory ", this Party being entitled, in agreement with the country's authorities, to charge persons with the maintenance of graves and with the erection of suitable monuments on the said graves.

More or less identical terms can be found in the additional Treaty to the Peace Treaty of March 3, 1918 between Germany, Austro-Hungary, Bulgaria and Turkey of the one part and Russia of the other part.

The wording of the above-mentioned articles cannot fail to have influenced the drafting of articles 225 and 226 of the Peace Treaty of Versailles of June 28, 1919. By the terms of these articles the graves of the soldiers and sailors will be respected and properly maintained, and any Commission appointed by an Allied or Associated Government for the purpose of identifying, registering, and caring for the said graves will be recognized and given facilities for the discharge of its duties.

Furthermore, the graves of the nationals of the different belligerent States who have died in captivity shall be properly maintained. The Governments reciprocally undertake to furnish each other with a complete list of those who have died together with all information useful for identification, as well as all information as to the number and position of the graves of all those who have been buried without identification.

Provisions with a similar sense are included in the following peace treaties, which to all intents and purposes can be considered as being parallel treaties to the Treaty of Versailles :

Peace Treaty of June 4, 1920 (Trianon) between the Allied and Associated Powers and Hungary : art. 155, 156.

Peace Treaty of September 10, 1919 (St. Germain-en-Laye) between the Allied and Associated Powers and Austria : art. 171, 172.

Peace Treaty of November 29, 1919 (Neuilly-sur-Seine) between the Allied and Associated Powers and Bulgaria : art. 116, 117.

The experiences of the First World War had shown that a subsequent settlement of the question of war graves by a convention *post factum* was not sufficient. Owing to the great number of dead whose graves remained unknown and who had not been identified, the Geneva Convention of July 27, 1929 dealt for the first time in a detailed manner with the question of military personnel who had died in war. By virtue of article 4, belligerents are bound to communicate to each other reciprocally, as soon as possible, in addition to the names of the wounded and sick, those of the dead collected or discovered, together with any indications which may assist in their identification. They shall also transmit to each other certificates of death, articles of a personal nature, identity discs, and shall ensure that the dead are honourably buried or cremated, preceded by a careful, and if possible, medical examination with a view to confirming death and establishing identity. Graves shall be respected and marked so that they may always be found. To this end the belligerents shall officially organize a graves registration service to render eventual exhumations possible and to ensure the identification of bodies, whatever may be the subsequent site of the grave. After the cessation of hostilities they shall exchange a list of graves and of dead interred in their cemeteries and elsewhere.

These same provisions having been included in the Geneva Convention for the amelioration of the condition of the wounded and sick in armed forces in the field of August 12, 1949, in a fuller and more detailed form, we shall refrain from commenting on the 1929 Convention in order the better to examine that of 1949. It can be seen that the text is three times longer than that of the Convention of 1929. This is the general sense of the provisions :

Art. 15. After an engagement all possible measures will be taken, without delay, to search for the dead and prevent their being despoiled.

Art. 16. All particulars which may assist in the identification of the dead of the adverse Party will be recorded with the least possible delay. This information should be forwarded as rapidly as possible to the Information Bureau (described in article 122 of the Geneva Convention relative to the treatment of prisoners of war of August 12, 1949), which shall transmit it in its turn to the adverse Power through the intermediary of the Protective Power and of the Central Prisoners of War Agency.

Certificates of death and duly authenticated lists of the dead will be prepared and forwarded through the above-mentioned channel.

Art. 17. Burial or cremation of the dead, carried out individually as far as circumstances permit, must be preceded by a careful, and if possible medical examination with a view to confirming death, establishing identity and enabling a report to be made. One half of the double identity disc, or the identity disc itself if it is a single disc, should remain on the body.

Bodies should not be cremated except for imperative reasons of hygiene or for religious motives, and the circumstances stated in detail on the death certificate and on the list of the dead.

The dead should be interred honourably and, if possible, according to the rites of the religion to which they belonged. Their graves should be respected, grouped if possible according to the nationality of the deceased, properly maintained and marked so that they may always be found. For this purpose, an official Graves Registration Service should be organized at the commencement of hostilities, to allow subsequent exhumations and to ensure the identification of bodies, as well as their possible transportation to the home country.

As soon as circumstances permit, and at latest at the end of hostilities, these Graves Services shall exchange, through the Information Bureau mentioned in article 16 of the First Geneva Convention, lists showing the exact location of the graves together with particulars of the dead interred therein.

In Germany, the Army Graves Service was administered during the First World War by the Quarter-Master General's branch, whose sections were however abolished at the end of hostilities.

Its work was taken over by the Graves Service of the German civilian administration, the Ministry of the Interior being responsible for graves within the country and the Ministry for Foreign Affairs for those located outside the national territory. Since the beginning of the war an office ¹ had been created which was also responsible for applying the provisions of art. 225 and 226 of the Treaty of Versailles already mentioned above. The drawing up of the lists of graves in particular entailed arduous work for this service, as well as for the contracting Parties. It was therefore necessary to complete this work, as it was desirable in the interest of the families themselves whose wishes went far beyond the scope of the contractual stipulations.

Whilst the respect and maintenance of German military graves could be insisted upon on the basis of the provisions of the Peace Treaty, it still however remained necessary to stipulate this official activity by completing it through private initiative. Such considerations led to the founding in the autumn of 1919 of the German War Graves Commission ².

It was realized when this Commission was founded that the maintenance of military graves could not be undertaken by the public alone or by a commission alone acting as its representative, since such activity was, and is still, bound up too closely with political considerations, if only because they are based in law on international agreements. This therefore led to the issuing of a note by the Ministry of the Interior of May, 1921 ³ as follows: "The putting into effect of questions relative to military graves having been and will still have to be the subject of agreements between the Government of the Reich and foreign governments, will devolve on the Central Tracing Office. This official activity undertaken by the national and foreign authorities cannot by its very nature entirely fulfil the rôle which would satisfy the feelings of the country concerning its own dead. These considerations have therefore led to the forming of the German War Graves Commission, the only organization entitled by the authorities of the Reich and

¹ Central Tracing Office for Missing Military Personnel and for War Graves (Zentralnachweise-Amt für Kriegerverluste und Kriegergräber).

² Volksbund Deutsche Kriegsgräberfürsorge.

³ Translated by our Translation Section.

by the governments concerned to undertake the maintenance of military graves. It exercises a charitable function which is a valuable adjunct to action carried out by the official services ”.

Thus, when the War Graves Commission started on its work it was made clear, and that is an all-important point, that its activity was to be additional to that of the official services and it was soon agreed with the authorities that such activity would begin once official intervention ceased or proved itself to be insufficient.

Official responsibility for war graves was determined in its principles by the German law of December 29, 1922, on the maintenance of military graves of the World War. In this it was stipulated that the graves of German military buried on the territory of the Reich should be protected in perpetuity. The same provision was applicable to the graves of soldiers and sailors of the former Allied Powers interred on German soil, as well as to those of former adversaries and to the graves of civilian internees of the former adverse Powers.

By reason of the very nature of its humanitarian tasks, the Graves Commission has always remained a purely private society, non-political and interdenominational, failing which, it could not have been able to pursue the three objectives it had set itself, which according to its first statutes of 1919 are :

to prepare, embellish and maintain, taking public feelings into account, German war graves abroad and German and other war graves on German territory ;

to assist the families of military personnel fallen or dead in the war in all matters relative to the maintenance of graves ;

to carry out international assistance in connection with war graves on a reciprocal basis.

It would take too long to set out in detail how the War Graves Commission accomplished these tasks and the difficulties which it encountered. We shall limit ourselves to pointing out in this connection that the Commission's activity, which extended over the whole of Europe, was mostly new soil in view of the losses of the First World War which, for Germany alone, amounted to nearly two million dead. Account also had to be taken of the very difficult position in Germany. Having lost the war, she had to pay heavy

reparations, most of her dead were buried outside the national frontiers in former enemy territory, and as a result of total inflation a disastrous situation existed in the country. Nevertheless, in addition to the assistance lent to families and to the maintenance of graves, the way was cleared for successful international co-operation.

Thus relations were established and continued for nearly twenty years with foreign official and semi-official bureaux, as well as with private associations which were engaged in the maintenance of war graves (Austrian Black Cross, Saxon War Graves Commission in Transylvania, National Association for mothers and widows of the fallen in Italy, Circle of Hope in England, to mention only a few). These contacts were fruitful, even after the Second World War, especially as the activity of the War Graves Commission was not limited to German victims of the First World War, but was also extended, without distinction, to those of every nationality who had been killed in the war. The German defeat, which put an end to the Second World War in 1945, placed the Commission in front of an infinitely harder task than in 1918. The German army had lost more than three million men, for whom certificates of death existed for only one half. No figures or precise names were available, and in many cases it was not known whether the soldier who was being traced was dead, missing or a prisoner. Government services responsible for maintaining war graves, and which had continued their task during the Second World War, were totally inadequate. The War Graves Commission, which is a private organization, and whose action is based on the voluntary co-operation of its members, had suffered greatly and had to be reformed.

It therefore found itself facing an enormous task alone. Since no official services were in existence to deal with the maintenance of war graves, it had to transform the "additional" activity which it had exercised between the two wars into one of "substitution". Its first important and most urgent task was to make a record of the dead and, for that purpose, it had to establish a central card-index of graves of the military who had fallen in the Second World War. Since the "Wehrmacht's" documents had been destroyed or had fallen into the hands of the victorious Powers, this task was one of the most difficult to be accomplished by the War Graves Com-

mission. All imaginable ways had to be followed in order to succeed, after endlessly arduous work, in discovering the number and the location of German war graves in more than fifty countries. Persons charged by the Graves Commission itself and by outside services, German prisoners of war, the International Committee of the Red Cross in Geneva, and also many private individuals both German and foreign, co-operated in this task. It could then be seen, and this was most encouraging, that feelings of humanity depend neither on places nor on peoples, and that compassion for bereaved families, the respect which the sacrifice of life inspires in us, even of the enemy, are everywhere to be found.

The central card-index of war graves has formed the very basis of every activity of the Commission. It has enabled information to be given to families as regards the location of graves and was the chief factor involved whenever exhumations were considered necessary, or for the maintenance of definitely established military cemeteries, in Germany as well as abroad.

On May 27, 1952, the German Federal Republic published a decree on the maintenance of war graves, the terms of which included in particular reference to graves of members of the armed forces of the foreign belligerent States fallen during the course of the Second World War or who had died as prisoners of war, as well as to graves of German and foreign civilians who had lost their lives as a result of hostile action during the Second World War. Mention is also made of graves recognized as such by virtue of the decree of December 2, 1922, relative to the maintenance of military graves of the First World War. The decree of 1952 entrusted the maintenance of war graves to the "Länder" of the German Federal Republic and ordered that the graves should be found, maintained, their location communicated and protected in perpetuity. The Government furthermore declared that it would assume the costs of the graves of the "victims of national socialism who had died in concentration camps in which they had been interned for political, racial or religious reasons, of interned civilians, foreign workers, of foreigners who had been given assistance by a refugee organization in assembly camps where they had died."

In 1952 the War Graves Commission had already established more than 400 war graves in the Federal Republic and the heads

of the " Länder ", recognizing its work, very much wished that its principles also applied in their own circumscriptions. The decree promulgated at that time therefore enabled the Commission to gather fresh strength and financial means to carry out its activity abroad, and this was gradually to become possible once more. During the course of preparations prior to the drawing up of bilateral agreements on war graves and by reason of the information which it possessed on the number and location of German graves, it was in a position to play the rôle of technical adviser to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Federal Republic. These agreements stipulated that the War Graves Commission would carry out practical work incumbent on the German party as regards the maintenance of war graves and that it would deal with all special problems resulting therefrom with the appropriate authority of the foreign contracting party direct. By virtue of these agreements, the assembling of graves in military cemeteries designated by common agreement with the foreign Government, as well as the maintenance of war graves, devolved on the War Graves Commission, provided approval of the plans was accorded by the German and foreign Governments. The expenses incurred by the maintenance of the war graves are at the charge jointly of the Government and of the Graves Commission.

Up to now a series of conventions relative to war graves have been concluded with the following countries in chronological order : Luxemburg, Norway, Belgium, France, Italy, Egypt and Great Britain. Agreements with Greece and Denmark have been initialled, but not yet signed, and others are in the course of preparation, for example with Ireland, Sweden and Tunisia.

Of the War Graves Commission's activities, the assistance given to families has suffered the least structural changes, no doubt because it is one of the most " human ", the most personal of these. That which concerns it has remained unchanged in the statutes which have seen every sort of alteration during the past decades. Two factors were responsible for making closer contact with families : the transmission of information to them became easier with the development of the card-index and once graves were able to be regrouped, the Commission considered it to be its duty for its part to inform families of such transfers.

The War Graves Commission has organized journeys abroad to the site of burial for relatives of the dead. Furthermore, it has entrusted youth with a new and important task. In the international youth camps (the "Kolping-Werk", the YMCA, sporting and other youth organizations sent some of their members to these camps), the young of many countries have helped it to establish German military cemeteries and devoted their time, their holidays and their money to this task. As in all its work, this latter action has had as its deep purpose that of respecting the last wishes of millions of the dead of all nationalities, and of showing the power of reconciliation which can rise from their graves, from the sorrow of women and of mothers. In this field of pure humanity, in spite of divergences between their respective activities, the War Graves Commission finds the same idea and mission as that of the Red Cross.

RUDOLF VON NEUMANN

Member of the Federal German Headquarters
of the German War Graves Commission

INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE OF THE RED CROSS

SUNDRY ACTIVITIES

News Items

Visits to European Detainees in Algeria

On September 17, 1962, two representatives of the International Committee of the Red Cross, Mr. Jean-Jacques Muralti and Mr. Joseph Gasser, were authorised to visit the thirty-four Europeans detained in the Maison-Carrée prison near Algiers. They spoke freely and without witnesses with these prisoners, whose nominal roll was then transmitted to the French authorities by the ICRC. From their visit they brought messages destined for the families of the detainees.

On September 26, the ICRC visited the Maison-Carrée prison near Algiers for the second time. Its representatives noted the presence of forty-three European detainees, with whom they also spoke freely and without witnesses. They obtained the nominal roll of these prisoners of whom they transmitted messages to their families.

On behalf of the missing and interned in Algeria

Two representatives of the International Committee of the Red Cross, Mr. Pierre Gaillard and Mr. Roger Vust, have completed a mission in Algeria. Instructed to make contact with the authorities, they were received by Mr. Ferhat Abbas, President of the Constituent Assembly and Mr. Rabah Bitat, Vice-President of the Government. The delegates were also able to have talks with Colonel Houari Boumedienne, Commander-in-Chief of the National People's Army and Minister of Defence, and Mr. Ahmed Medeghri, Minister of the Interior ; they examined with them the problem of missing persons and former military (harkis) presumed to be detained in internment camps, and obtained assurances from

them on the subject. The ICRC representatives also met Mr. Medjad, Head of National Security, and Mr. Hacène, Director of Penal Establishments, who promised to undertake new investigations to discover the whereabouts of missing Europeans.

Finally, Mr. Gaillard and Mr. Vust spoke with Dr. Oucharef, Vice-President of the Algerian Red Crescent, with whom they studied the question of the organization of that National Society in the process of being formed.

The ICRC has charged Mr. Vust, its permanent delegate in Algeria, to continue to make representations on behalf of Harkis, Moslem auxiliaries who had served in the French Army. The International Committee in Geneva, as well as its representatives in Algeria, have in fact for some time past received various enquiries concerning their fate. These drew attention in particular to the existence of internment camps for Harkis.

The ICRC has good reasons for hoping, therefore, to be able to visit these internment camps. It considers it to be its duty to extend its help to the Harkis, since their position is one of the after-effects of the Algerian war.

Help for the Civilian population

It should also be pointed out that two representatives of the ICRC, Mr. Vust and Mr. Gasser went to Tablat at the request of the Sub-Prefect of the district, to examine the problem of assistance to the civilian population. Among other things, they studied the conditions in which it would be possible for a French Red Cross mobile team to resume its activities in this region where the needs remain considerable.

The Sub-Prefect of Tablat also asked for the ICRC's support in finding a medical team ready to work in his area, which holds 50,000 inhabitants without a single doctor.

In Nepal

After a slowing-down due to the monsoon rains, the delegation of the International Committee of the Red Cross in Nepal is again working at full stretch helping the Tibetan refugees. Its two planes grounded by technical difficulties and the persistent bad weather since the beginning of the summer in these Himalayan regions, are flying again.

These Swiss manufactured Pilatus Porter aircraft, which are specially adapted for high altitude flights, have already enabled refugees to be supplied with valuable relief. Thanks to these machines, the ICRC doctor delegates succeeded in 1961, in checking a smallpox epidemic which had broken out in the Walungchung

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valley, in the East of the country. They parachuted medical supplies including 2,000 doses of anti-smallpox vaccine into the valley, accompanied by instructions in Tibetan and Nepalese for the local doctors.

The two planes have completed a number of other missions in the high valleys of Nepal. They land on makeshift strips which are among the highest in the world, and this is not without its hazards. On several occasions already, the aircraft have been seriously damaged on take-off or landing. This summer, large scale repairs were needed and the pilots, Mr. Claude Jacot and Mr. Emile Wick, assisted by the mechanic, Mr. Herbert Steinmann, carried out technical checks and statutory test flights, in order to prepare the machines to continue their missions in the high valleys where the refugees live.

It was in 1961 that the first ICRC aircraft began flights in regions which had never before been overflown. The initiative is due to Mr. Toni Hagen, who in a voluntary capacity directed the action on behalf of the Tibetan refugees in its first phase and rendered considerable service, thanks to his profound knowledge of Nepal.

Visit to foreign volunteers detained in Léopoldville

The delegate of the International Committee of the Red Cross in the Congo, Mr. G. C. Senn, has been to Léopoldville, where he visited four foreign nationals interned there, who are considered as volunteers in the service of Katanga. Following a complaint by one of them, he instituted a medical enquiry with the agreement of UNO, the Detaining Power.

It should be noted that the ICRC is prompted by purely humanitarian reasons in its concern with the condition of these persons, one of whom does not, in any case, consider himself as a foreign volunteer. As always, in such cases, its intervention is based solely on the fact that these persons are detained as the result of a conflict.

After the incidents in Gabon

Following on the incidents which took place at Libreville (Gabon) between Congolese and Gabonese between September 16 and 18, the Government of the Congo (Brazzaville) asked the International Committee of the Red Cross by telegram to lend its assistance to the Congolese victims. The ICRC advised the Gabonese Government of this request, asking it to supply it with the necessary details.

The ICRC, which has transmitted the reply received from the Gabonese Government to Brazzaville, is remaining in contact with the two governments.

The ICRC in Laos

The International Committee of the Red Cross has decided to maintain its delegation in Laos until the end of 1962, in order to continue its work of assisting refugees. In fact, if their number has considerably decreased since the cease-fire agreements, there are still large groups, especially in the Mekong valley, which have not returned to their villages of origin. The ICRC will therefore continue to bring its aid to them for some time longer, in close co-operation with the authorities and the Red Cross in Laos.

Departure of a further batch of repatriated Koreans

The repatriation of Koreans resident in Japan which has been in operation since 1959 under the auspices of the Japanese Red Cross and in the presence of ICRC delegates, is at present the subject of negotiations between the Red Cross Societies of Japan and of the Democratic People's Republic of Korea. While awaiting the outcome of these talks, the 98th vessel transporting Koreans wishing to return to the north of their country of origin, left the Japanese port of Niigata on October 4, for Chongjin. Two representatives of the International Committee of the Red Cross recently visited the reception centre at Niigata to see the 192 people waiting to board the ship.

The 97th transport left Niigata on July 21, with 164 passengers on board. The total number of repatriated persons was thus brought to 77,085.

A request to Geneva from Buenos Aires

The Argentine Red Cross in Buenos Aires has requested the intervention of the International Committee of the Red Cross in Geneva in connection with the recent events in the Argentine Republic. Following this request the ICRC has instructed its delegate in Buenos Aires, Mr. Jacques de Chambrier, to contact the Argentine Red Cross in order to examine with them humanitarian problems raised by the recent events, which might come within its sphere of competence.

Compensation for the victims of pseudo-medical experiments

The Commission of neutral experts appointed by the International Committee of the Red Cross to examine the case of victims of pseudo-medical experiments carried out under the Nazi regime, to which the Government of the German Federal Republic is prepared to pay compensation, met in September in Geneva under

the presidency of Professor Jean Graven, Rector of the University of Geneva, President of the Supreme Court of Appeal. It studied the files of a further group of 107 Hungarian victims of such experiments, files drawn up in Budapest, then submitted to a mixed commission consisting of doctors appointed by the Hungarian Red Cross and the ICRC. The neutral experts meeting in Geneva held all the cases which were submitted to it, with one exception. Their decisions will result in indemnities being paid in proportion to the extent of the experiments subjected and to the damage still being suffered thereby.

On the other hand, the files of a fresh group of Polish victims of the same experiments are at present being studied. They will be the subject of a forthcoming meeting of the expert Commission.

The Government of the German Federal Republic has already placed at the disposal of the ICRC all the funds allocated to the first group of Polish and Hungarian victims. In December 1961, the ICRC transmitted these amounts to the beneficiaries.

Consequences of the Civil War in Greece

A number of Greek families still apply to the Central Tracing Agency in Geneva, either directly or through the intermediary of the Greek Red Cross, to discover the fate of their relatives missing during the civil war in Greece, now more than thirteen years ago.

The absence of all news does not leave much hope that the person sought has survived the struggle and could be found amongst the Greek refugees established in several countries of Eastern Europe. It is however a matter of obtaining proof of decease to put an end to a family's painful uncertainty.

To this end, the Central Agency has had recourse to the co-operation of the Committee of Greek political refugees in Budapest, which exercises its activity in the various countries of asylum. This Committee has opened enquiries, the results of which it periodically communicates to the Central Agency, in the form of lists containing detailed information concerning the circumstances of the decease of combatants fallen during the course of operations.

These lists are transmitted by the ICRC to the Greek Red Cross, which is then in a position to settle cases which have remained outstanding for many years.

The Red Cross and aid to the victims of internal conflicts

How can the aid of the Red Cross to victims of internal conflicts be made more effective? This was the question which the International Committee of the Red Cross submitted to a commission

of international experts which had its first meeting in Geneva on October 25 at the headquarters of the ICRC

Two similar consultations had taken place in 1953 and 1955. As at these two previous meetings the experts had chiefly to examine the application of article 3 common to the four Geneva Conventions of August 12, 1949, as well as their effects on the international level.

It should be recalled that this article 3 consists of a minimum of humanitarian rules to be respected "in the case of armed conflict not of an international character". It also mentions that "an impartial humanitarian body, such as the International Committee of the Red Cross, may offer its services to the Parties to the conflict."

Since the signing of the new Conventions in 1949, many situations presented themselves in which article 3 was applied in a more or less satisfactory manner. Its terms in fact lay themselves open to fairly wide interpretation.

The consultations which took place in Geneva was of a purely private character. The experts had been convened to take part in them in a private capacity. Three members of the ICRC also participated with a deliberative voice, as well as three experts appointed by the Danish, Mexican and Yugoslav Red Cross Societies. The following personalities took part in this consultation : Prof. Roberto Ago (Rome), Prof. Frede Castberg (Oslo), Mr. Paul Cornil, Secretary-General of the Ministry of Justice (Brussels), Prof. Nihat Erim (Ankara), Prof. Jean Graven (Geneva), Prof. Erik Husfeldt (Copenhagen), Mr. Bosko Jakovljević (Belgrade), Prof. Roger Pinto (Paris), Mr. J. J. G. de Rueda (Mexico), Prof. Georges Ténékidès (Athens). Mr. Erim is President of the commission, in whose work representatives of the ICRC also participated.

The Red Cross Centenary

The following indications will give some idea of how preparations are progressing. The detailed models set up by the draftsmen of the different sections of the Exhibition, which opens in Geneva next August, have been made up into a complete model which has been shown to the members of the Centenary Commission, to the representatives of the patron institutions and of the federal, cantonal and municipal authorities of Geneva. It was also shown to the delegates of the National Societies attending the recent meetings of the League.

A letter of invitation has been sent to the National Societies, asking them to participate in the different study centres, the programme of which has now been settled. They will shortly receive a questionnaire relative to the contribution which they expect to make to the organization of Commemoration Day :

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strength of delegations, equipment made available for the processions, etc.

In the field of information, it should be noted that a team of journalists who are co-operating voluntarily in writing articles for the Centenary press service has had two meetings. A press conference has been held in Geneva and numerous papers, as well as radio and television, have drawn the public's attention to the celebrations planned. We should also like to point out that the Federal Department of the Interior, at Berne, in liaison with the Swiss Commission of Applied Arts, has opened a competition for an official Exhibition poster.

The problem of accommodation is being carefully studied and a list is now being made of hotels which can accommodate delegates and visitors coming to Geneva next August and September.

Guests of the ICRC

Various personalities of the Red Cross World took the opportunity of their stay in Geneva, during the 82nd session of the Executive Committee of the League of Red Cross Societies, to have talks with the directors of our institution. Thus, the ICRC successively welcomed : Dr. F. Janouch, President of the Czechoslovakian Red Cross and Dr. K. Blaha, Head of the Foreign Section ; Mr. Masutaro Inoue, Director of the Department for Foreign Affairs of the Japanese Red Cross, Mr. S. Sato, Director of the Information Department of the Japanese Red Cross, accompanied by Mr. K. Watanabe and Mr. S. Yasubuchi ; the Countess of Limerick, Vice-Chairman of the British Red Cross ; Professor Z. Kreiji, President of the Junior Red Cross of Czechoslovakia ; Dr. I. Domanska, President of the Polish Red Cross and Miss Danuta Zys, Head of the Department of External Relations ; Mr. Hans Ritter von Lex, President of the German Red Cross in the Federal Republic of Germany, and Dr. A. Schlögel, Secretary-General, accompanied by Mr. H. Ritgen and Dr. K. Wagner ; Colonel C. Arroyo, Relief Director of the Chilean Red Cross ; Dr. Werner Ludwig, President of the German Red Cross in the German Democratic Republic, accompanied by Mr. J. Zimmering, former Permanent Representative of the German Democratic Republic in Geneva ; Dr. G. C. Caridad, Head of the Medical Services of the Philippine National Red Cross.

From mid-September to the beginning of October, the International Committee received several visitors at its headquarters, among them : Mr. William M. Gibson, Minister Plenipotentiary and Deputy Permanent Representative of the United States in Geneva ; Dr. Rascae D. Whatley, Director of the Birmingham Chapter of the American Red Cross, returning from a relief mission

in Indonesia ; Mr. K. Z. Mohammed, travelling regional delegate of the Junior Red Cross of Nigeria and Mr. R. Gossmann, a member of the Junior Red Cross of the Federal Republic of Germany, both holding UNESCO scholarships, on a study visit to the League of Red Cross Societies ; Mrs. Gabrielle Bollet, President of the Donnemarie-en-Montois Committee of the French Red Cross ; Mrs. Elen Habib Rihan, Secretary of the Lebanese Red Cross ; Mr. J. Emmanuel Berry, Executive Secretary of the Liberian National Red Cross, who devoted a day's study visit to the ICRC ; Miss G. Bura and Miss E. Dublin, Press Chiefs of the Swiss Red Cross.

The ICRC also welcomed various groups, amongst which we would mention members of the Swiss Union of Press Attachés ; students belonging to the "Helft Europas Jugend" from west Germany ; a group of travel agents from the German Federal Republic.

INTERNATIONAL RED CROSS

FORTHCOMING CENTENARY OF THE FOUNDATION OF THE RED CROSS

The centenary of the founding of the Red Cross will, as we know, be celebrated in Geneva in August and September 1963. For some months past several Commissions and Sub-Committees have been at work preparing and organizing the various events, to which references have already been made in the International Review. The Centenary Commission produces a series of "Newsletters" of which we now give a few extracts. These will give some idea of the two most important elements of the celebrations which will be taking place next year in Switzerland, and whose importance will pay witness to the lasting quality of our movement.

International Exhibition of the Red Cross

This Exhibition, to be held in Geneva's Palais des Expositions, will be open to the public during the Centenary Commemorative Period, i.e. 15th August to 15th September 1963. It is conceived as an informational and educational presentation of the Red Cross Movement as a whole and it is designed for the general public as well as Red Cross members and the specialist. It may also provide the basis for a permanent Geneva Museum which would fulfill a long-felt need.

To inspire a general interest and to avoid duplication, the International Exhibition of the Red Cross is to be essentially thematic and be comprised of two main sections :

1. *Historical Section* which will show, in as attractive and clear a manner as possible, the principal stages in the development of the Red Cross from its foundation to the present day ;

2. "*Topical*" *Section*, which will show the many diverse facets of the Red Cross, while maintaining an essential unity, and endeavour to illustrate the many types of problem with which the Red Cross can be faced, the way in which it meets these, its future possibilities and its plans. It will, first of all, show the organization and operations of the Red Cross institutions, the International Conferences and their resolutions, the Geneva Conventions and, finally, the Principles.

Then will be shown assistance to military and civilian victims of armed conflicts, relief to victims of natural disasters, health, the Junior Red Cross and, finally, information (Press, radio, television and films), which will include two cinemas and devote considerable space to Philately, Numismatics and Red Cross Posters.

These last three Sections will retrace the history of the Red Cross around the world through the large numbers of stamps issued during the century by 135 countries and territories, through medals, insignia and decorations and by posters. Their beauty and originality will make these three Sections a real attraction for the public, both Red Cross members and not.

The larger of the cinemas will show a programme of general information films while productions of a more specialized interest will be screened in the second cinema.

The Medical Services of Armed Forces, depicted in different Sections of the Exhibition, will underline the parallelism of these activities with those of the Red Cross and stress the importance of the Geneva Conventions.

Finally, to enable industrial and commercial firms to show the latest developments of interest to the Red Cross, a Section called "Equipment at the Service of Mankind" is under consideration.

The International Exhibition of the Red Cross is now taking shape. It is hoped that it will arouse a wide interest in the work of the Red Cross and a desire to help in one way or another. If visitors realize what the Red Cross has done, what it can do for all in pre-

venting and relieving suffering, and if they ask themselves what they can do for the Red Cross, then the aim of the Exhibition will have been achieved.

Centenary Commemoration Day

Sunday 1st September 1963 will be marked in Geneva as Centenary Commemoration Day, within the framework of the Red Cross Centenary Programme in Switzerland.

The "Centenary Commission for the Red Cross in Switzerland" plans to mark the full importance of the event and unite all National Societies and the Genevese public in kindred spirit during this day dedicated to the Movement's Anniversary. "Centenary Day", while recalling a past which does honour to humanity, will also be forward looking and be a fresh point of departure for a Movement, which circumstances make more necessary than ever.

It is foreseen for this Commemorative Day to begin with a Solemn Proclamation. The Swiss Authorities and Heads of Delegations, preceded by National and Red Cross banners of participating countries, will proceed to Geneva's Grand-Théâtre, where the Official Ceremony is to take place.

The Programme will be highlighted by addresses from the Swiss Authorities and personalities belonging to the Red Cross movement, together with musical works also indicative of the Red Cross' universality. Benjamin Britten, Dimitri Shostakovich and Frank Martin have accepted, in principle, to compose special works which will be played by the Swiss-Romande Philharmonic Orchestra, under the direction of its conductor, Ernest Ansermet.

At the close of this Ceremony, wreaths will be placed at the monument erected in Geneva to the memory of Henry Dunant, and an address made. A special radio-television hookup will link Zurich and Heiden, where similar ceremonies will take place at the same time.

In the afternoon a Red Cross International Parade through Geneva is scheduled. This will present different epochs in the history of the Red Cross and portray the principal activities of National Red Cross, Red Crescent and Red Lion and Sun Societies from

around the world. It will depict in vivid manner for citizens and visitors alike the spirit of the Red Cross, its universality and the constant effort to make it ever more worthy of the principles to which it is dedicated.

To associate the public with the Centenary Celebration, the Parade will finish with an outdoor gathering, a picnic and an international folklore programme.

Dedicated to the public, Commemoration Day assumes an educational character. It will render homage to the first 100 years and affirm the Red Cross of today. It must be a dynamic occasion for both participants and onlookers. For these reasons, it will be re-transmitted as widely as possible throughout the world by all available methods of publicity.

M I S C E L L A N E O U S

THE FREEDOM FROM HUNGER CAMPAIGN

The International Review has mentioned in previous numbers the world campaign undertaken by F.A.O., an action on a world scale of which the recent developments are here described by Mr. B. R. Sen, Director-General of that organization :

The first half of the twentieth century has witnessed three major revolutions. The political revolution has given self-government to nearly a third of the world's population and has brought their aspirations for a better life to the forefront of world attention. The revolution in communications has broken down the barriers of distance and language, and the dynamism of ideas can no longer be contained within the limits dictated by social privilege or political considerations. The demographic revolution has imparted to the challenge of poverty and want a new dimension.

It is against this background that the Freedom from Hunger Campaign was launched in 1960 by the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. Its main objectives are two-fold : first, to create a world-wide awareness of the problems of hunger and malnutrition which afflict more than a half of the world's population and which, apart from the human suffering and human degradation that they involve, pose a serious threat to peace and orderly progress, and second, to promote a climate of opinion in which solutions to these problems can be organized both on a national and on an international basis.

In the short time since its launching, the Campaign has already provided a focus for co-operative endeavor for international organizations, national governments, nongovernmental organizations and various citizens' groups all over the world. The 104 Mem-

ber Nations attending the biennial session of the FAO Conference in November 1961 paid unanimous tribute to the significance of this Campaign for the future well-being of the world.

The Freedom from Hunger Campaign attempts to attack the problem of hunger on a broad front and at all levels of economic and social thought and action ; but for practical purposes, it defines three sectors of operation : (a) information and education, (b) research, and (c) action.

The information and education sector will help bring to citizens everywhere a living awareness of the concrete facts and issues, and provide bases for deciding what new national and international policies and action programs are needed. This effort to create informed and active awareness will rise to a climax with the World Food Congress to be held under FAO auspices in 1963. Many international professional and citizens' groups hold forums on Campaign issues. Many national Campaign Committees also organize similar discussions. Representatives from all these bodies are expected to participate in the World Food Congress and help bring into focus policies and action plans for the future.

In order to help communities and individuals to examine the great problems involved, FAO and other international organizations taking part in the Freedom from Hunger Campaign have prepared and now produced a series of studies whose purpose it is to summarize the conclusions reached by the experts. One of these studies entitled, Education and Training in nutrition, of which we give the following extracts, emphasizes the need for reserving a place for education in national campaigns against hunger and malnutrition.

Many countries today are drawing up long-term programs for agricultural and economic development. Programs of education and training in nutrition form an essential part of these comprehensive programs, for a large part of the world suffers from malnutrition and millions still do not have enough to eat.

In more than 20 countries, experience has demonstrated that programs of education in nutrition, combined with teaching improved methods of food production and with feeding programs to encourage better habits of diet, can lead to the more efficient

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use of present food supplies. Education in nutrition also facilitates the optimum use of additional food supplies made available through increased agricultural production, improved methods of food processing and marketing, or the donation of foods by surplus producing countries. As a result of improved food habits, the well-being and productivity of the population are increased.

Time and effort are usually necessary to accomplish desired changes in food habits. The individual and the family must be reached and influenced through teaching, demonstration and example. Experience indicates that persons who are known and trusted by the people make the best teachers. Programs of education in nutrition may, therefore, be carried out most effectively through established channels—by the schoolteacher, agricultural extension worker, home economist, health worker and community leader—if they are provided with adequate training and supervision.

In order to provide leaders and workers in the field of nutrition, continued and increased assistance is needed in the following forms : additional fellowships for senior personnel ; professorships and lectureships in nutrition at the universities, colleges and centers where agriculturists, teachers, food technologists, home economists, health and community workers are trained ; adequate library and laboratory facilities. Field programs must be strengthened and expanded to provide trainees with field experience and supervised practice in teaching. Teaching materials and texts on nutrition must be developed and produced in quantity.

If man is to learn how to free himself from hunger and malnutrition, the rate of both technical and material aid to programs of education and training in nutrition must be accelerated.

PRESENT DAY PROBLEMS OF NURSING PERSONNEL

The *Revue internationale* has on a number of occasions published studies on nursing personnel and its training in various countries, on attempts at uniting nurses on an international level¹, and on problems raised today by the increasing demand for qualified personnel. This demand is general and has considerably increased since the end of the Second World War.

This is of capital importance; since the existing hospital organization which is becoming larger all the time, requires more and more nurses and auxiliary nurses. There is no doubt that the development of all the public health services and the increase in the number of patients in hospitals are the chief reasons for this shortage of staff. Much study has been devoted to this problem.

Amongst other factors one should mention the parallel development of private medical and health services, particularly in industrial concerns and the progressive complexity of present medical and surgical techniques. The supply of full-time qualified nursing staff has not followed the ever-increasing demand and it has become more and more necessary to appeal to nurses working part-time.

This appears clearly to be the case, for example in Great Britain, since the formation of the National Health Service in 1948. We publish below certain extracts of an article by Mrs. B. A. Bennett from the *International Labour Review*² dealing with the employment of part-time nursing staff in that country. The author, who was formerly in charge of the nurses employment section at the Ministry of Labour in Great Britain, examines the opportunities offered by the employment of part-time staff. She is of the opinion that such an arrangement can resolve certain present difficulties. We think these extracts will be of interest at a time when National Red Cross Societies are facing such problems, especially those Societies possessing hospitals and nursing schools and which,

¹ See *Revue internationale*, February, 1961.

² Geneva, April 1962.

consequently are directly concerned in the fact that the nursing services in most countries at present lack qualified staff.

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... It will be seen from the foregoing account that part-time staff can be useful in almost all branches of nursing. It is obvious that there must be some adjustment of the "peak period" of work so that maximum use can be made of all available nursing skill. Moreover, the hours of full-time staff must be adjusted so that they are not left with all the early morning, evening and weekend work.

Work study in different types of hospitals and public health nursing services can reveal the peak periods, and indicate where these can easily be altered without detriment to the patients and to fit in with the hours part-time nurses can work without too much dislocation of their own homes.

The majority of these workers, both trained and untrained, are married women, often with children, characterised by a mature, responsible outlook. The fact that they have been running a home and looking after a family, dealing with sickness and various emergencies gives them a good understanding of the patients. So long as the employing authorities realise that they have home commitments, part-time workers are usually loyal and give their services unselfishly. Absenteeism, except in serious home emergencies, is rare. Although they may work only a few hours a week, their attendance is usually regular, particularly if they are assigned to one ward, department or clinic and are given a feeling of "belonging". They soon become well acquainted with the routine, and the patients learn when to expect them on duty.

Having been tied to their own homes, often for years, the nurses enjoy the stimulating effect of working and appreciate their contact with nursing colleagues and medical staff. They are most anxious to acquire knowledge of up-to-date methods and welcome any in-service lectures, films and discussions that can be arranged for them.

Much depends on the relationship between a married part-time nurse and her husband and older children. If there is a genuine desire to earn money by nursing and the husband agrees and understands the hours nurses must work, he is frequently willing to undertake a share of the home responsibilities.

Drawbacks of Part-Time Nursing.—As the foregoing has suggested, the arranging of a satisfactory work schedule for part-time nursing personnel is a major problem, and constitutes one of the main weaknesses of the system. Adequate coverage of early morning, evening and weekend duties are particularly difficult to ensure. Married women with children find it difficult to commence duty before 8 a.m.; those on night duty must usually leave the hospital not later than 8 a.m. to see the children off to school. They may also find it difficult to commence evening duty before 6.30 p.m. if they have to prepare an evening meal. Night work is, of course, a major inconvenience to many housewives, since there is frequently little opportunity for them to rest at home during the day.

Even if periods of duty are carefully planned, they may fail to fit in with the husband's plans, and the nurse may eventually have to cease work as a result. Other family obligations, of one kind and another, can interfere with regularity at work. Apart from the obvious case of pregnancy—since, as already pointed out, many part-timers are young married women—children's illnesses and holidays and domestic crises can cause unavoidable and unforeseen disruptions, resulting in absence from the job. Then, too, resort to part-time staff with family obligations complicates the problem of replacement during holiday periods—particularly at Christmas.

Part-timers, moreover, create quite an additional burden of administrative work in hospitals, e.g. in relation to ward rotas, payment for "odd" hours worked, uniforms and holidays. They also require additional physical facilities, such as warm, dry changing rooms, and hospital transport where public transport is inadequate. Training facilities may also be required to provide refresher courses or in-service training for nurses and auxiliaries who have been away from hospitals for some years.

Finally, mention may be made of personal frictions between full-time and part-time staff and, in particular, the reluctance of the former fully to accept the latter, already alluded to above.

Some of the drawbacks of part-time nursing schemes are, of course, peculiar to public health nursing; the most striking of these is the disadvantage of letting too many people handle children in clinics and day nurseries.

Advantages of Employing Part-Time Nurses.—On the other hand, the employment of part-time nurses has obvious advantages. First, of course, it permits keeping more beds in use and providing service for more patients. Not only the number of persons cared for, but the standard of the service provided, benefits. For instance, where the special care of patients in intensive treatment rooms and respiratory units requires many nurses, the part-timers provide the extra care. Also, extra comfort can be provided for patients by part-time staff being available for work in out-patients' departments—e.g. reassuring apprehensive patients, or looking after children when patients are being examined. Part-time nurses are particularly useful in helping to provide the necessary unhurried care for geriatric patients who need help with dressing and undressing, feeding and toilet. Elderly women can do this work ; in fact, they welcome it and feel of use to the aging sick members of the population. Many such workers live alone and are glad to work in this particular field. A general factor favourably influencing the standard of service provided is that, as already pointed out, the majority of part-time nurses of all grades are married, often with children. They are, therefore mature, responsible women, and the fact that they have been running a home and looking after children, well and sick, gives them a better understanding of their patients.

Finally, the employment of part-time personnel has a favourable effect on the full-time staff. Not only does it provide welcome relief for them and permit their working hours to be arranged more satisfactorily, but, by relieving student nurses of routine tasks, it helps to ensure better training and thereby to raise the standards of the profession as a whole.

Recruitment.—No national appeal has been made with a view to recruiting married or elderly persons for part-time employment in nursing. It would, indeed, not be wise to undertake such advertising. Not all hospitals need part-time staff, and a nation-wide appeal would prove disappointing to some applicants because work would be unavailable near their homes. Local appeals, on the other hand, through newspapers, posters and cinema have had excellent results. For example, a hospital in the London area, by advertising in the local press, was able within a week to add 12 part-time nurses, nine

of them state-registered, to its staff. A refresher course was arranged for those who required it.

* * *

While part-time nurses and auxiliary nursing staff are being employed extensively in hospitals and other nursing services in Great Britain even more could be employed with advantage to patients and the full-time staff ; this would make it possible to use more hospital beds and to provide better training for student nurses as well as better and more individual patient care.

The success of part-time nursing schemes depends on good administration. The needs of married workers—which includes their husbands and children—must be taken into consideration. Where these needs are recognised, and met, part-time nurses give good and loyal service.

Many married nurses would return to work if refresher courses were arranged for them, particularly with instruction in the use of modern drugs and nursing methods.

Nurseries and nursery schools on hospital premises are valuable. There are some, but still too few, where part-time nurses can leave their children when they are working.

Transport is a great problem ; the hospitals where staff shortages are serious are usually not served by frequent and convenient public transport. Moreover, transport charges to outlying hospitals are expensive and should be provided free if the maximum use is to be made of all available nursing skill.

Rest rooms and changing rooms are essential. There should be excellent facilities for all non-resident staff for hanging clothing and, in a climate such as that of Great Britain, there should be arrangements for drying coats and shoes during wet weather.

Careful planning, sound administration, goodwill and good working conditions with arrangements for easy transport can eliminate all the so-called difficulties of the employment of part-time staff. The advantages of their employment far outweigh the drawbacks.

B O O K S

J. HENRY DUNANT¹

by

Willy HEUDTLASS

The head of the Press and Broadcasting Service of the German Red Cross in the German Federal Republic, Mr. Willy Heudtlass, had already, in co-operation with Mr. Anton Schlögel, Secretary-General of that National Society and Mr. Götz Fehr, former head of the Junior Red Cross, produced a book in 1958, in which he recalled the historical significance of the Battle of Solferino and the leading rôle taken by Dunant in the founding of the international movement, which had originated in his own mind when he was caring for the wounded in the Chiesa Maggiore at Castiglione.² Mr. Heudtlass has now produced another book this time entirely devoted to Henry Dunant.

The sub-title "Founder of the Red Cross, originator of the Geneva Convention" at once shows that the author has sought above all to collect authentic documents and refer to various sources in order to throw light on a personality whom one knows has been the subject of so much discussion, some people being of the opinion that he had less merit than had been said. These criticisms seem very far away today and it would appear that no one would take it upon himself to diminish the part taken by Dunant in the foundation of the Red Cross, nor in the production of the book *A Memory of Solferino*. Mr. Heudtlass himself refers to his work "Eine Biographie in Dokumenten und Bildern", thus asserting his determination to base himself on the archives, photographs and documents which he has been able to assemble together and which contribute to give a living and complete picture of Dunant.

¹ W. Kohlhammer Verlag, Stuttgart, 1962.

² *Solferino, ein Anfang, ein Zeichen, ein Ruf an alle*, Verlag Schiller, Essen, 1958.

This is in fact the first time that so much important information has been collected about Dunant, items of personal information which, even if Mr. Heudtlass considers them to be of interest, are not taken literally by him, but are rather clarified and sometimes corrected in the light of material which he reproduces in his book. A number of reproductions are to be found at the end, which include several hitherto unpublished documents from the archives of the International Committee of the Red Cross in Geneva, of the "Bibliothèque publique et universitaire de Genève", as well as those of Dr. Manfred Müller at Gelsenkirchen. These reproductions serve to illustrate the introduction which is preceded by two prefaces. One of these is by Mr. Carl J. Burckhardt, member of the ICRC, and the other by Dr. A. von Albertini, President of the Swiss Red Cross. The introduction briefly analyses Dunant's character and the origin of his misfortunes. It concludes: "This tortured soul finally finds peace. If the last part of his life brings, unfortunately much too late, a crowning homage of gratitude as well-merited recognition together with honours, it cannot be considered adequate recompense for all the setbacks of his existence. This does not, however, in any way affect Dunant's work, a work which was much too great to be destroyed by human errors."

Mr. Burckhardt says amongst other things:

"The experiences of the battle-field of Solferino in 1859, which overwhelmed this young Genevese, lacking connections as well as influence, resulted in producing a sense of "vocation" in him, something which is always remarkable in a man. From him was to spring spontaneously and with a really creative impulsion one of the great directing ideas of modern times. Once he had placed himself in the service of this idea, he subsequently devoted his whole life to it, in spite of the lack of understanding and the scepticism of his contemporaries, with such energy that he succeeded in awakening the consciences of many people. Then, extending it far beyond its original meaning, he made an ethical postulate of it, one of fellowship and the reconciliation of peoples, which was to be of great effect. Today the Red Cross numbers 160 million members.

Dunant possessed this faculty of compassion to such a high degree that it became his dominant impulse surpassing all others.

BOOKS

As a sort of counter-balance he therefore 'opposed to the egoism of politicians, greedy for power, land and favours, acting on behalf of various groups and people, a power which worked in silence and whose very essence was one of love. All he accomplished, alone, in spite of his own failings and contradictions in a suspicious world, was to be repeated and widely put into practice by others. On quite a different level, people who were infected by his proselytizing zeal, created the necessary conditions for the accomplishment of his mission, by adapting them to universal requirements. On some occasions they even had to oppose him, its promoter, in order to make his work practicable. As a result there was inevitable injustice, misunderstandings which always exist, causing Dunant to suffer in consequence. However, amongst those who laid solid foundations to his work, one sees fine figures such as Guillaume Henri Dufour, the wise peacemaker, who was prominent for his organizing ability.

Mr. Heudtlass possesses the merit in particular of having, with a keen scrupulousness for fairness, discarded many spectacular and sentimental myths about the unjust treatment to which Dunant was said to have been subjected. He does not hide, and this with much respect, Henry Dunant's real character. He is also aware of the dignity shown by the Red Cross, its work, the proofs of its efficiency, its problems, the dangers it ran and its setbacks as seen throughout the tragic years of the last world war. He knows the immense difficulties facing this institution, difficulties which are renewed day after day."

One should add that Mr. Heudtlass' study is always full of subtle shades of meaning and Dunant's relations with his colleagues of the Committee of Five, as well as with Geneva are treated objectively. He never states anything which cannot be corroborated by documentary proof, and this also applies to material concerning the verdict pronounced by a Geneva court as a result of unfortunate financial affairs in which Dunant had involved himself and which were to have disastrous consequences for him. One also knows of the opposition which existed between Henry Dunant and Gustave Moynier. Each of them had essentially different characters and they were to come into conflict over matters which they both had

at heart. They had both placed all their ambition, their intelligence and their hopes in the Red Cross. Committed as they were they could not accept any compromise. Dunant was the founder of a work which, owing to Moynier's considered and reasonable spirit, was able to be extended and deeply rooted in the legal world. In one passage of his book, Mr. Heudtlass illustrates this aspect of the relations between the two men, when he rightly emphasises Moynier's part in the development of the Red Cross movement on the international level :

“ Moynier was made of completely different stuff to Dunant, a sensitive being who was enclosed in himself by various inhibitions. Moynier and his family enjoyed no less repute than did Dunant's family. A level-headed man of law, calculating and always very considered in his ways, he had acquired a certain reputation as President of the Public Welfare Society of Geneva, one of the most important welfare associations of Geneva. It would be unfair to him to pretend that utilitarian considerations mingled with his first flush of enthusiasm for Dunant's book. Since he showed a warm sympathy in his relations with Dunant immediately after its appearance. In short, today as yesterday, the part which we take in the misfortunes of our times is not necessarily motivated by anything other than a real desire to help others. Moynier had however intuitively grasped the very essence of the ideas contained in Dunant's book. These same ideas were to go far beyond the confines of public and private welfare, which were even then shackled by rules. Furthermore, when he first met Dunant, he came face to face with a man who had not yet thought how his ideas were to be put into practice.”

Mr. Heudtlass has been fortunate to have been able to make use of some completely unknown items : the papers left by General Hans Daae of the Army Medical Service to his family, in Oslo. These concern the award of the first Nobel Peace Prize to Dunant and several of these are reproduced in this book together with unpublished documents which the author was authorized to consult at the Nobel Institute. He has thus been able to give a more complete and balanced picture than previously had been the case of the

various interventions which took place on that occasion. He has also been able to show the preponderant part taken in particular by the German Professor Rudolf Müller and the Norwegian General Dr. Hans Daae, who pleaded with great insistence for the selection of their friend Dunant with the Great Elector of that time, the writer Björnstjerne Björnson. The latter wanted the first Peace Prize to be awarded to Frédéric Passy, with whom he was on intimate terms and to whom he had no doubt made promises. We know that finally the prize was shared between Dunant and Passy.

The author has also published hitherto unknown material bearing on Dunant's last years. Installed at Heiden, the latter tried to make a sort of explanation of the human drama which, if it is of little importance in the history of the Red Cross, is interesting for the light it throws on the mystical development which led the author of *A Memory of Solferino* to make descriptions on a large scale in which he allots a place to each of the great figures of history and of religious thought. Mr. Heudtlass shows the deep reasons for this development, which are made all the clearer for his having chosen to follow Dunant year by year, describing the sequence of events which were to contribute to alter the sensitive and idealistic character of his hero and to make a rebel of him, finding refuge in a purely personal faith and in ever-increasing solitude.

A human being is composed of both light and darkness and the author shows that the latter sometimes enveloped Dunant's life. He reproduces for example Mrs. Sonderegger's testimony on the relations between Dunant and her husband, which shows him to be self-willed and difficult.

Dunant had been one of the first to see an international world beyond nationalities. But he also knew how to approach leading personalities in various countries in order to speak unceasingly with them about his ideal. This also appears in the book under review, which contains the complete reports of the 1863 Conference and demonstrates the way in which the French, German, Netherlands, Swiss delegates, and those of other nationalities intervened. Similarly one can find trace of numerous echos awakened by the founding of the Red Cross, not only amongst humanitarian personalities such as Clara Barton, Florence Nightingale and others, but also with Napoleon III and in the courts of that period. This

is most interesting information on the important rôle played by different European countries during the earliest days of the Red Cross.

Finally, in an appendix one can find a summary of the four Geneva Conventions of 1864, as proof of Dunant's ultimate triumph, since he had, with the intuition of genius, already seen a hundred years ago, that mankind could not continue to exist or to make progress unless the whole world was bound by universal bonds of human fellowship. He saw it being enveloped by a spirit of active charity and gradually permeated by a sense of fellowship, which is that of the Red Cross, and which should, by its inspiration, lead to an era of peace. For the real Dunant, whom Mr. Heudtlass fully reveals, is the visionary who calls unceasingly upon each one of us to come to the aid of others, whoever they may be.

J.-G. L.

A GLANCE THROUGH THE REVIEWS

The Red Cross World. *Geneva, 1962, No. 2.*

As usual, the latest number of the official organ of the League of Red Cross Societies is amply illustrated with fine photographs showing the various activities of the National Red Cross Societies in many parts of the world. The medical action organised by the League on behalf of Algerian refugees in Morocco and Tunisia is brought to notice in a series of particularly moving pictures.

This number is however more especially devoted to social work, that is to say to the aid which the Red Cross, whose rôle should essentially be pioneering, is being led more and more to undertake to bring to the sick, the mentally ill, aged people, to convalescents, as in times of major disasters. A whole category of persons previously ignored, even ostracized by society, now find themselves rehabilitated in their right to earn a living, to enjoy leisure and finally to recover their dignity. The Red Cross gives openings to the specialised services and it should be able to leave certain actions to them in order to create others.

Mrs. Léo de Bray, Secretary General of the Study Centre of Juvenile Delinquency in Brussels, has written an article of topical interest on this subject entitled "Social work and social action", of which the following is an important extract :

" . . . The industrial revolution of the 19th century, however, was to bring about a radical transformation both of social action and help to others, which was to be given the title of social work. Industrialisation created entirely new working conditions—the artisan was changed into a workman, who became increasingly distinct from the employer ; new living conditions—many country people became townspeople ; and new social conditions—the working class came into being. In these circumstances, social action was in turn to change its tone.

The second half of the 19th century was characterised by what has been termed "paternalism" : the well-to-do members of the population considered it a duty to relieve the suffering and distress of others. The idea of the right to assistance was, however, gaining ground. Private philanthropy multiplied its activities and employers came to the assistance of their employees. The systematic organisation of assistance progressed, e.g. Charity Organisation Societies, established in 1869 in England and in 1877 in the United States.

Social action succeeded in establishing the social rights of man : the right to health, work and labour protection, education and assistance

when necessary. The recognition of these rights led to the promulgation of laws (compulsory education, labour regulations, social insurance) and the establishment of new bodies ; medical services, homes etc. State action, which is required to determine a citizen's rights, was extended not only to the "poor" but to increasingly broader social categories and for other than basic material needs.

Social action, in the most highly developed countries, was placed not only on a material level but also on a psychological level. It was no longer exclusively focussed on the welfare and social adjustment of the individual but extended its aims to social structures. This action was also characterised by the participation of those who benefited, or would benefit, thereby ; there were mass reactions, the most apparent of which was the labour movement. Such collective reactions can be considered as one of the main factors of contemporary social action. At the same time the assistance techniques were changing and were being adapted to new economic and social conditions. Scientific methods were gaining on empiricism. Help to others, now known as social work, was being organised on a systematic basis. Founded on observation and experiments, it was entrusted to salaried professionals who had made theoretical and practical studies. The first social work schools appeared. Social workers, in face of the completely novel situations in which they tried to put the ideology described into practice, had to turn to many branches of knowledge for assistance : sociology and psychology in turn supplied these resources.

Sociology having drawn their attention to the influence exercised by social factors on individual situations, social workers were to endeavour to obtain the social advantages which had become available for their clients.

Mary Richmond, who published her "Social Diagnosis" in 1917, was to guide them with genius, teaching them how to proceed to a systematic study of a case. She also supplied them with the definition of social work : a series of methods which develop personality by the conscious and individual adjustment of man to his environment. Social workers made a conscientious effort to apply the procedure which the Anglo-Saxons call "handling environment", taking action to remedy the situation of a client by concrete measures that are not simply palliative but as far as possible, curative.

The way was thus opened up for the next phase of social work. Social legislation having improved the living conditions of large layers of the population, social work was no longer confined to indigents. The duties of the social worker were to transcend the satisfaction of material needs and his clients, coming from various social classes, no longer accepted help linked with a form of patronage or guardianship. Furthermore, the discoveries of dynamic psychology were to reveal to social workers the influence of sentiments and emotions on human behaviour. Can the similarity and the coinciding paths of the trends we have just described

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be attributed to mere chance? It is difficult to believe; they rather illustrate the close links that exist between social action and social work, which assume different forms.

Social work is constantly up against economic and social problems. It supplies social action with factual data and documents of certain value. Its rôle is to make known individual forms of distress that affect a large number of people and which general and collective measures could remedy. It can thus co-operate in establishing suitable programmes of action to this end.

Social work furnishes the indispensable executive agents for the practical implementation of the conquest of social action.

Social work softens and humanises the application of general measures resulting from these conquests. It serves as an intermediary between the bodies established in the interests of the community and the individuals who are to benefit therefrom.

Social work helps individuals, groups and communities to become conscious of their responsibilities in the treatment and solution of their problems and difficulties. It thus prepares the ground for social action.

Furthermore, social work derives powerful support from social action, which provides collective solutions that could not be reached by other means.

In conclusion, it can be said that social work is complementary to social action. They are perhaps carried out on different levels, but they pursue the same aim: to assure the material and moral wellbeing of man, to release the latent powers of the individual, the group or the community, and to develop human dignity to the utmost."

Food and Health, by Dr. M. Autret, *FAO News, Rome, April 1962.*

Today, perhaps more than at any time in man's history, people throughout the world are conscious that famine is a disgrace to humanity, that it is an offence to the dignity of all men, not merely the victims of it.

But, apart from the extreme cases of famine, there are relationships between food and health which are of far-reaching importance and are too often ignored by the majority of people. We know now that much ill health and disease is caused not only by the lack of sufficient food but also by the lack of the right sort of food. Put in another way, satisfactory health and physical development are impossible without a diet that supplies all the nutrients now known to be essential for the human organism. This has been shown by nutritional research. We also know that in many countries the usual diet of the mass of the people falls far short of such requirements, with disastrous consequences. Large numbers

of children become ill and may die because they do not get enough protein. Lack of certain vitamins and minerals also leads to ill health and diseases in various forms. The vitality and working capacity of the people, in turn, are impaired and their efforts to improve their living conditions and achieve greater prosperity are handicapped. Solving this problem is one of the testing challenges faced by the modern world. Although such problems of nutrition are the most serious in the underdeveloped countries, they also exist in prosperous countries. Research is still bringing to light unexpected relationships between diet and disease, such as the suspicion that the amount and kind of fat we eat may have a bearing on the incidence of certain illnesses such as coronary heart disease.

Today, relatively high standards of living prevail in about twenty countries with a total population of around 400,000,000. In these twenty countries, during the past century, the average length of life has increased from 35 to between 60 and 70 years, and thus a full generation has been added to the span of human existence. One thing which has helped to make this possible is that the people in these countries eat more and better food than did their forebears—more animal protein, more fruits and vegetables, food that promotes growth and builds healthy bodies. The privileged men who live in these countries consume more than 2,700 calories a day and over 30 grams of animal protein per day—much higher intakes than those of the people in underdeveloped countries.

They tend to grow taller and stronger, and fewer of them die in childhood. Most of the people in this fortunate, but comparatively small, group are to be found in North America, in limited areas of South America, in the United Kingdom and much of western Europe, and in Australia and New Zealand. Indeed, these people are today so well fed that it has become a common saying that some of them “eat themselves to death”, largely because they consume more calories than they need for maintaining good health. This leads to obesity, which is often associated with various forms of ill health.

It is a tragic paradox to have one part of humanity struggling with the effects of overeating while more than half their fellow human beings continue to suffer from malnutrition and undernourishment. Such people never have enough good food for health and growth and vigor. The people in this undernourished group eat mainly cereals—wheat, rice, maize, barley and other grains—and starchy roots, such as potatoes, yams, cassava, etc. They live in Asia, where more than half the world's population is concentrated, and in some parts of Africa, Europe, and South and Central America. Even in the most prosperous countries there are to be found some people who do not have enough to eat. Undernourishment and malnutrition lower the physical resistance of people and they are ready victims of diseases, such as for example, tuberculosis, and their capacity to work, to help themselves, to learn and progress, is reduced.

A GLANCE THROUGH THE REVIEWS

In the past few years the world's nutrition experts have become aware of the extent of a malnutrition illness among children. It is the illness with many names. In Central Africa it is called "Kwashiorkor". In South Africa "Infantile Pellagra", in Jamaica it is called "Fatty Liver Disease or Sugar Baby". The French once called it "Dystrophie des Farineux" and the Germans "Mehlnährschaden". In the Congo it is sometimes called "M'buaki", in India "Nutrition Distrophy" or "Nutritional edema syndrome", and Latin America "Distrofia Pluricarencial Infantil". These names, and dozens of others, all mean the same kind of sickness in young children. It is protein malnutrition. Whatever name is given to the condition, its signs and symptoms are, to a certain degree, similar and the same curative treatment usually produces good results. Among the symptoms are serious digestive upsets. Many mothers, especially in underdeveloped parts of the world, react to these upsets by putting children on a near-starvation diet in the hope of a cure. Instead, the children become more ill. The seriousness of the condition is indicated by the fact that among the relatively few cases admitted to African hospitals the mortality rate was, until recently, as high as 50 percent. The most effective treatment is to put the child on a protein-rich diet. Skim milk has proved most effective for this purpose. Even a seriously ill child can often be restored to health in a short time.

The reasons for the prevalence of protein malnutrition among children are relatively simple. Infants and young people need a diet rich in protein in order to grow. The infant obtains sufficient protein from its mother's milk as long as the mother can provide enough milk, but as the child grows, its protein must come also from other sources. In some parts of the world this creates no difficulty. The growing child is given cow's milk in various forms and is gradually weaned to a good diet of which milk continues to be an important part. But in many countries there is very little, if indeed any, milk for children other than that of their mothers. Children pass directly to the ordinary diet of the family, which is usually poor in protein. Even when foods rich in protein, such as meat, fish, or eggs, appear in the family meals, they are often reserved for adults.

In some countries—and, unfortunately, mainly in those countries where food is already scarce—certain foods are believed to possess magic properties for good or evil. Eating them, it is thought, may influence the weather or the crops, or sexual potency. Such deeply rooted superstitions are hard to alter and complicate even more the problems of undernourishment and malnutrition. Some useful foods are disdained as being more fit for animals than for human beings, even though they may have formerly served as human nourishment. For example, northern Europeans in general have little taste for maize, which is largely regarded as chicken feed. In some parts of the United Kingdom, certain green vegetables, which used to be eaten by people, are now considered suitable only for cattle. In many countries people will not eat the flesh of certain

animals, sometimes because of religious or health taboos, or perhaps, because the animals are looked upon as friends of man. This is the case with the horse and the dog in a number of countries, although both are used for food in some parts of the world. Some animal foods, such as locusts, mice, frogs, snakes, worms, shellfish, which are considered delicacies by some people, are repugnant to others.

A good example of the fact that attitudes toward a food may vary greatly from culture to culture is provided by milk. In many parts of the world, milk is considered of primary importance for its health-giving qualities, especially for children, invalids and old people. Liquid milk is often believed to be more beneficial than powdered milk or other forms of milk, such as butter and cheese. But certain American Indian tribes, for instance, consider milk disgusting. In some countries, milk is popular among all groups of the population, whereas in other countries it is considered undesirable for adults.

Dietary restrictions of religious origin play an important part in the food habits of many peoples. Thus Mohammedans may not eat pork, most Hindus will not eat beef, and some Hindu communities consume no food from animal sources except milk and milk products because their faith forbids the taking of life. Some Christian sects are also vegetarian and others observe weekly fast days on which no meat is eaten. The Jewish religion forbids pork, shellfish and various other foods and also prohibits the consumption of meat and dairy products at the same meal. Feeling upon such subjects may run very deep.

Through many generations of observance, such restrictions, many possibly based on early public health practices, have thus eliminated certain foods from the diet of some peoples. On the other hand, religious feasts make an important contribution to normally poor diets in many regions of the world. In many cultures the preparation of food follows traditional methods prescribed by religious belief and these beliefs and practices must be understood in order to introduce new foods and methods. For instance the slaughter of animals is regulated and ritualized in some faiths. In others, only food which has been prepared by members of the sect may be eaten.

Foods available, habits, religious practices, prejudices, superstitions and attitudes, have created a situation in which every nation, every group, community cast or family tends to assume that its own eating habits and food represent the normal. But there is no "normal" food just as there are no normal times for eating. It is not enough to say that a people will eat the food that the soil grows most easily. Trade in different foods between one part of the world and another, the capacity of the people to buy them, personal tastes, mass food production and modern techniques such as refrigeration, are affecting food supply and consumption more than ever before.

The question "Why do we eat what we do in the way we do?" seems to be a simple one, but a moment's thought shows that there is no simple

A GLANCE THROUGH THE REVIEWS

answer. In fact, human food habits depend upon a variety of factors, historical, geographic, cultural, economic, and so forth. There are, of course, a number of basic main foods in all human diets—cereals, starchy roots or both. The protective foods, such as pulses, sugar, fats and oils, fruits, vegetables, meat, eggs, fish and milk are more or less the same everywhere. Man may, and has, cultivated hybrid and improved cereals, and has bred improved species of domestic animals and birds, but this has only introduced differences within the food groups, not entirely different sources of food. Science has, of course, enabled other sources to be tapped or created but it is “food technology” that has been the important factor in the development of food sources. A large-scale food industry is not new. For example, sugar has been a factory product for centuries and in ancient Rome there were great bakeries which made the bread for the proletariat. But within the last century or so, the food industry has extended to such a degree that it now exercises a profound and, on the whole, beneficial influence on human food patterns. The transformation of oil seeds into the widely consumed, cheap, palatable, easily stored and transported product we call margarine is among the remarkable achievements of food technology. Margarine, as such, is inferior in nutritive value to butter only because it lacks fat-soluble vitamins, but another development in food technology has made enrichment with the missing vitamins possible and qualified it to compete with butter—all too successfully from the standpoint of the dairy industry—not only in price but also in nutrient content.

An emulsion of soybean, often erroneously called “soybean milk”, is a partial substitute for animal milk. It has been known and used by the Chinese for many centuries. In other parts of Asia, particularly in Indonesia, Thailand, India and the Philippines, experiments with soy and peanut preparations are being carried on with satisfactory results. For example, a “milk substitute” called saridele, made from soybeans, is being used very successfully in Indonesia. It is an extract of soybeans with sesame seed extract, vitamins and minerals added. It is marketed in powder form, and, when reconstituted, resembles milk, although its actual nutritive value is less than that of cow’s milk. Increasing attention is also being given to the possibilities of promoting the production and use of fish flour, a cheap, protein-rich food, and also to press-cake flour, the nutritious product obtained when the oil is extracted from oil seeds and nuts. All these products can be incorporated in many local dishes, making them more nutritious and no less appetizing than before. Very promising results have also been obtained with seaweeds and algae, from which valuable foodstuffs can be extracted. These are only a few examples of the vast possibilities that are still available to increase food production in the world, apart from the considerable improvements that could be achieved in agricultural and animal husbandry all over the world.

EXTRACT FROM THE STATUTES OF
THE INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE OF THE RED CROSS

(AGREED AND AMENDED ON SEPTEMBER 25, 1952)

ART. 1. — The International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC), founded in Geneva in 1863 and formally recognized in the Geneva Conventions and by International Conferences of the Red Cross, shall be an independent organization having its own Statutes.

It shall be a constituent part of the International Red Cross.¹

ART. 2. — As an association governed by Articles 60 and following of the Swiss Civil Code, the ICRC shall have legal personality.

ART. 3. — The headquarters of the ICRC shall be in Geneva.

Its emblem shall be a red cross on a white ground. Its motto shall be " Inter arma caritas ".

ART. 4. — The special rôle of the ICRC shall be :

- (a) to maintain the fundamental and permanent principles of the Red Cross, namely: impartiality, action independent of any racial, political, religious or economic considerations, the universality of the Red Cross and the equality of the National Red Cross Societies ;
- (b) to recognize any newly established or reconstituted National Red Cross Society which fulfils the conditions for recognition in force, and to notify other National Societies of such recognition ;

¹ The International Red Cross comprises the National Red Cross Societies, the International Committee of the Red Cross and the League of Red Cross Societies. The term " National Red Cross Societies " includes the Red Crescent Societies and the Red Lion and Sun Society.

- (c) to undertake the tasks incumbent on it under the Geneva Conventions, to work for the faithful application of these Conventions and to take cognizance of any complaints regarding alleged breaches of the humanitarian Conventions ;
- (d) to take action in its capacity as a neutral institution, especially in case of war, civil war or internal strife; to endeavour to ensure at all times that the military and civilian victims of such conflicts and of their direct results receive protection and assistance, and to serve, in humanitarian matters, as an intermediary between the parties ;
- (e) to contribute, in view of such conflicts, to the preparation and development of medical personnel and medical equipment, in co-operation with the Red Cross organizations, the medical services of the armed forces, and other competent authorities ;
- (f) to work for the continual improvement of humanitarian international law and for the better understanding and diffusion of the Geneva Conventions and to prepare for their possible extension ;
- (g) to accept the mandates entrusted to it by the International Conferences of the Red Cross.

The ICRC may also take any humanitarian initiative which comes within its rôle as a specifically neutral and independent institution and consider any question requiring examination by such an institution.

ART. 6 (first paragraph). — The ICRC shall co-opt its members from among Swiss citizens. The number of members may not exceed twenty-five.

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ADDRESSES OF CENTRAL COMMITTEES

- AFGHANISTAN — Afghan Red Crescent, *Kabul*.
- ALBANIA — Albanian Red Cross, 35, Rruga Barrikadavet, *Tirana*.
- ARGENTINE — Argentine Red Cross, H. Yrigoyen 2068, *Buenos Aires*.
- AUSTRALIA — Australian Red Cross, 122-128 Flinders Street, *Melbourne, C. 1*.
- AUSTRIA — Austrian Red Cross, 3 Gusshausstrasse, *Vienna IV*.
- BELGIUM — Belgian Red Cross, 98, Chaussée de Vleurgat, *Brussels*.
- BOLIVIA — Bolivian Red Cross, Avenida Simon-Bolivar, 1515 (Casilla 741), *La Paz*.
- BRAZIL — Brazilian Red Cross, Praça da Cruz Vermelha 10-12, *Rio de Janeiro*.
- BULGARIA — Bulgarian Red Cross, 1, Boul. S.S. Biruzov, *Sofia*.
- BURMA — Burma Red Cross, 42, Strand Road, Red Cross Building, *Rangoon*.
- CAMBODIA — Cambodian Red Cross, 8 Phlaur Ang Nonn, P.O.B. 94, *Pnom-Penh*.
- CANADA — Canadian Red Cross, 95, Wellesley Street East, *Toronto 5*.
- CEYLON — Ceylon Red Cross, 106, Dharmapala Mawatte, *Colombo VII*.
- CHILE — Chilean Red Cross, Avenida Santa Maria 0150, Casilla 246 V., *Santiago de Chile*.
- CHINA — Red Cross Society of China, 22, Kanmien Hutung, *Peking, E*.
- COLOMBIA — Colombian Red Cross, Carrera 7a, 34-65 Apartado nacional 11-10, *Bogota*.
- COSTA RICA — Costa Rican Red Cross, Calle 5a Sur, Apartado 1025, *San José*.
- CUBA — Cuban Red Cross, Ignacio Agramonte 461, *Havana*.
- CZECHOSLOVAKIA — Czechoslovakian Red Cross, Thunovska 18, *Prague III*.
- DENMARK — Danish Red Cross, Platanvej 22, *Copenhagen V*.
- DOMINICAN REPUBLIC — Dominican Red Cross, Calle Galvan 24, Apartado 1293 *San Domingo*.
- ECUADOR — Ecuadorian Red Cross, Avenida Colombia y Elizalde 118, *Quito*.
- ETHIOPIA — Ethiopian Red Cross, *Addis Ababa*.
- FINLAND — Finnish Red Cross, Tehtaankatu I A, *Helsinki*.
- FRANCE — French Red Cross, 17, rue Quentin-Bauchart, *Paris (8^e)*.
- GERMANY (Dem. Republic) — German Red Cross in the German Democratic Republic, Kaitzerstrasse 2, *Dresden A. 1*.
- GERMANY (Federal Republic) — German Red Cross in the Federal Republic of Germany, Friedrich-Ebert-Allee 71, *Bonn*.
- GHANA — Ghana Red Cross, P.O. Box 835 *Accra*.
- GREAT BRITAIN — British Red Cross, 14 Grosvenor Crescent, *London, S.W.1*.
- GREECE — Greek Red Cross, rue Lycavittou 1, *Athens 135*.
- GUATEMALA — Guatemalan Red Cross, 3.^a Calle entre 8.^a y 9.^a Avenidas, *Guatemala*.
- HAITI — Haiti Red Cross, rue Férou, *Port-au-Prince*.
- HONDURAS — Honduran Red Cross, Calle Henry Dunant, *Tegucigalpa*.
- HUNGARY — Hungarian Red Cross, Arany Janos utca 31, *Budapest V*.
- ICELAND — Icelandic Red Cross, Thorvaldsensstraeti 6, *Reykjavik*.
- INDIA — Indian Red Cross, 1 Red Cross Road, *New Delhi 1*.
- INDONESIA — Indonesian Red Cross, Tanah Abang Barat 66, P.O. Box 9, *Djakarta*.
- IRAN — Iranian Red Lion and Sun Society, Avenue Ark, *Teheran*.
- IRAQ — Iraqi Red Crescent, *Baghdad*.
- IRELAND — Irish Red Cross, 25 Westland Row, *Dublin*.
- ITALY — Italian Red Cross, 12, via Toscana, *Rome*.
- JAPAN — Japanese Red Cross, 5 Shiba Park, Minato-Ku, *Tokyo*.
- JORDAN — Jordan Red Crescent, P.O. Box 1337, *Amman*.
- KOREA (Democratic Republic) — Red Cross Society of the Democratic People's Republic of Korea, *Pyongyang*.
- KOREA (Republic) — The Republic of Korea National Red Cross, 32-3 Ka Nam San-Dong, *Seoul*.
- LAOS — Laotian Red Cross, *Vientiane*.
- LEBANON — Lebanese Red Cross, rue Général Spears, *Beirut*.

ADDRESSES OF CENTRAL COMMITTEES

- LIBERIA — Liberian National Red Cross, Camp Johnson Road, *Monrovia*.
- LIBYA — Libyan Red Crescent, Berka Omar Mukhtar Street, P.O. Box 541, *Benghazi*.
- LIECHTENSTEIN — Liechtenstein Red Cross, *Vaduz*.
- LUXEMBURG — Luxemburg Red Cross, Parc de la Ville, *Luxemburg*.
- MEXICO — Mexican Red Cross, Sinaloa 20, 4^o piso, *Mexico 7*, D.F.
- MONACO — Red Cross of Monaco, 27, Boul. de Suisse, *Monte-Carlo*.
- MONGOLIA — Red Cross Society of the Mongolian People's Republic, 26, Nairamdal Gudamg, P.O. 20/26 *Ulan-Bator*.
- MOROCCO — Moroccan Red Crescent, rue Calmette, *Rabat*.
- NETHERLANDS — Netherlands Red Cross, 27 Prinsessegracht, *The Hague*.
- NEW ZEALAND — New Zealand Red Cross, 61 Dixon Street, P.O.B. 6073, *Wellington C. 2*.
- NICARAGUA — Nicaraguan Red Cross, 12 Avenida Nordeste, 305, *Managua*, D.N.C.A.
- NIGERIA — The Nigerian Red Cross Society, 2, Makoko Road, P.O. Box 764, *Lagos*.
- NORWAY — Norwegian Red Cross, Parkveien 33b, *Oslo*.
- PAKISTAN — Pakistan Red Cross, Frere Street, *Karachi 4*.
- PANAMA — Panamanian Red Cross, *Panama*.
- PARAGUAY — Paraguayan Red Cross, calle André Barbero y Artigas, *Asunción*.
- PERU — Peruvian Red Cross, Tarapaca 881, *Lima*.
- PHILIPPINES — Philippine National Red Cross, 600 Isaac Peral Street, P.O.B. 280, *Manila*.
- POLAND — Polish Red Cross, Mokotowska 14, *Warsaw*.
- PORTUGAL — Portuguese Red Cross, General Secretaryship, Jardim 9 de Abril, 1 a 5, *Lisbon*.
- RUMANIA — Red Cross of the Rumanian People's Republic, Strada Biserica Amzei 29, C.P. 729, *Bucarest*.
- SALVADOR — Salvador Red Cross, 3a Avenida Norte y 3a Calle Poniente, 21, *San Salvador*.
- SAN MARINO — San Marino Red Cross, *San Marino*.
- SOUTH AFRICA (Republic) — South African Red Cross, 14 Hollard Street, P.O.B. 8726, *Johannesburg*.
- SPAIN — Spanish Red Cross, Eduardo Dato 16, *Madrid, 10*.
- SUDAN — Sudanese Red Crescent, P.O. Box 235, *Khartoum*.
- SWEDEN — Swedish Red Cross, Artillerigatan 6, *Stockholm 14*.
- SWITZERLAND — Swiss Red Cross, Taubenstrasse 8, *Berne*.
- SYRIA — Syrian Red Crescent, *Damascus*.
- THAILAND — Thai Red Cross Society, King Chulalongkorn Memorial Hospital, *Bangkok*.
- TOGO — Togolese Red Cross Society, Avenue des Alliés 19, P.O. Box 655, *Lome*.
- TUNISIA — Tunisian Red Crescent, 1, Avenue de Carthage, *Tunis*.
- TURKEY — Turkish Red Crescent, Yenisehir, *Ankara*.
- UNITED ARAB REPUBLIC — Red Crescent Society of the United Arab Republic, 34, rue Ramses, *Cairo*.
- URUGUAY — Uruguayan Red Cross, Avenida 8 de Octubre, 2990, *Montevideo*.
- U.S.A. — American Red Cross, National Headquarters, 17th and D Streets, N.W., *Washington 6*, D.C.
- U.S.S.R. — Alliance of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies, Kouznetsky Most 18/7, *Moscow k. 31*.
- VENEZUELA — Venezuelan Red Cross, Avenida Andrés Bello No 4, *Caracas*.
- VIET NAM (Democratic Republic) — Red Cross of the Democratic Republic of Viet Nam, 68, rue Bà-Triez, *Hanoi*.
- VIET NAM (Republic) — Red Cross of the Republic of Viet Nam, 201, đường Hồng-Tháp-Tu, No. 201, *Saigon*.
- YUGOSLAVIA — Yugoslav Red Cross, Simina ulica broj 19, *Belgrade*.